

## Early Journal Content on JSTOR, Free to Anyone in the World

This article is one of nearly 500,000 scholarly works digitized and made freely available to everyone in the world by JSTOR.

Known as the Early Journal Content, this set of works include research articles, news, letters, and other writings published in more than 200 of the oldest leading academic journals. The works date from the mid-seventeenth to the early twentieth centuries.

We encourage people to read and share the Early Journal Content openly and to tell others that this resource exists. People may post this content online or redistribute in any way for non-commercial purposes.

Read more about Early Journal Content at <a href="http://about.jstor.org/participate-jstor/individuals/early-journal-content">http://about.jstor.org/participate-jstor/individuals/early-journal-content</a>.

JSTOR is a digital library of academic journals, books, and primary source objects. JSTOR helps people discover, use, and build upon a wide range of content through a powerful research and teaching platform, and preserves this content for future generations. JSTOR is part of ITHAKA, a not-for-profit organization that also includes Ithaka S+R and Portico. For more information about JSTOR, please contact support@jstor.org.

There is a passage which seems to imply that the virtual confiscation — the direct seizure of rent for the benefit of the state — which is to some an essential part of the scheme, is, in the author's plan, to be at least partly avoided. Owners are to be paid for the portion of land value itself that they really own: the boldest spoliation of the landlord class is apparently not to be practiced. The burden of the argument is that, when once introduced, the land tax will operate as a remedy for trade depressions and for natural poverty; and that, in its continuous working, rather than in its introduction, it will be in harmony with ethical principles.

As the ordinary plea for the single tax fails in its endeavor to justify morally the spoliation involved in seizing rent, this argument fails on the more practical side. It does not show how spoliation could, in practice, be wholly avoided; and to the average reader it probably does not show that the tax, if it could be imposed without robbing the land-owners, would, as a result, relieve poverty.

J. B. CLARK.

Report of the Massachusetts Board to Investigate the Subject of the Unemployed. Davis R. Dewey, David F. Moreland, Haven C. Perham, Commissioners. Boston, 1895.

This document of nearly 800 pages (House Doc., No. 50), submitted by the commissioners in January and February, 1895, is an excellent piece of work in social investigation. It is not too much to say that thus far it is something of a classic on the subject.

Part I of the *Report* deals with measures adopted in the winter of 1893-94 for the relief of the unemployed in cities and towns of Massachusetts and elsewhere. A brief summary of methods and results is given for the five different agencies officiating in relief work:

- 1. Special relief committees. In most communities the applicants for relief were almost wholly of the unskilled-labor class. Taking the applicants in the mass, with proper exceptions, "they were economically inefficient members of society." Relief by citizens' relief committees was given on investigation to resident applicants only; non-residents were cared for by the public poor authorities. None of the emergency enterprises conducted for relief of the unemployed was industrially profitable.
- 2. Relief on public works. Twenty-one cities out of thirty gave employment on public works, regular or special. Of the forty-one

towns, thirteen attempted to do likewise. The wages paid varied from \$1 to \$2 per day, and occasionally rose above \$2. From a business point of view the work done under emergency conditions was estimated to cost between twenty-five and sixty per cent more than by contract, labor employed under these conditions being almost always inferior in efficiency.

- 3. Relief by labor organizations. Relief came to some extent from savings accumulated in prosperous times, but mainly from extra funds on hand that had been raised for other purposes, from special funds voluntarily contributed by members for official distribution, and from money collected from various outside sources in aid of any persons known to be in want from non-employment. The labor representatives on public committees showed a marked degree of capacity in dealing with the situation.
- 4. Relief by private charities. In this class of relief charity-organization societies, churches and individuals engaged. The first of these generally confined themselves to investigation and to directing applicants to sources of material relief. The churches generally furnished material aid. The Boston Associated Charities dealt with fifty per cent more cases in 1893–94 than in the previous year; so also in Worcester and Lynn. In Lawrence, Lowell and Springfield the number of aided families increased 100 per cent over 1892–93.
- 5. Relief by public poor-departments. This kind of relief is given to persons having no settlement in town, city or state, by the state board of lunacy and charity, and to persons having settlement, by local poor-boards. As compared with the preceding year, 1893-94 showed an increase of 33,000 in the number of persons relieved, and of \$81,000 in the expenditure.

The public poor-departments of all the cities and towns of the state granted out-door relief alone to the amount of over \$700,000 for 1893-94. Thirteen citizens' relief committees raised about \$147,000. Appropriations to give employment on public works for relief of the unemployed amounted to \$353,000. Thus the total from these three classes of relieving agencies reached \$1,200,000.

Part II of the *Report*, on "Wayfarers and Tramps," makes clear the distinction between honest work-seekers and "dead-beat" tramps. The weight of evidence tends to show that not more than one in ten of those who apply in ordinary times is deserving of assistance. The other nine—the professional or occasional tramps—will never face the requirement of hard labor as the condition of receiving aid. Hence universal experience suggests a

rigorous work-test as the essential expedient for ridding the community of tramps. A state labor colony is recommended.

In Part III, on employment on public works, the commission deals with current proposals looking to the more extensive engagement of the state or municipal authorities in industrial enterprises as a guarantee of employment. The propositions considered were these:

- 1. That the state or municipality should establish factories or engage in industrial enterprises, with a view of giving employment.
  - 2. That the state should establish state farms.
- 3. That the state should increase its ordinary public works, and assign a part of such undertakings to the winter season.
- 4. That the public works, of either the state or municipality, should be executed directly by the public authorities, and that no work should be done by contract.
  - 5. That in all public works only residents should be employed.

    After considering a large body of testimony on the subjects the

After considering a large body of testimony on the subjects the commission concludes:

- 1. That as a rule the city does not do construction work directly as cheaply as can a contractor to whom the work is entrusted.
- 2. That in exceptional cases, with civil service rules well enforced, unrestricted by ordinances on rate of wages and condition of labor, the city can do its own work as cheaply as any private employer of labor.
- 3. That the work is generally better in quality when done by direct municipal employment than when done by contractors; but as small cities cannot do certain kinds of difficult work, no legislation restrictive of the contractive right of cities can be recommended.
- 4. Non-employment is frequently aggravated by the influx of non-resident and alien laborers brought in by contractors.
- 5. The plans for the establishment of factories or farms on state initiative appear impracticable.

Part IV, on the causes of non-employment, is the result of special inquiries made into the conditions of eight typical industries.

Part V, on remedies, after reviewing the temporary measures resorted to, suggests permanent preventive measures as follows:

- 1. Removal of residents of cities to the country and farms.
- 2. Abolition of the competition and hence displacement of free labor that is occasioned by the labor of inmates of reformatory and penal institutions.
  - 3. Reduction in the hours of a day's labor.

- 4. Restriction of immigration.
- 5. An extension of industrial education.
- 6. Improvement in intelligence and employment offices, or establishment of free employment offices.

Each of the five parts of the report is followed by a full index and well-selected evidence, very little if any of which serves as padding. Part I has besides a select bibliography on measures for relieving the unemployed in American and European cities. There are ample statistical tables. This part of the work is particularly well done. There is nothing radical in the recommendations. On the whole the *Report* is one of the most luminous documents on the question in this or any other land. It deserves to rank with the report of the Parliamentary commission on labor issued in Great Britain during 1893–94.

JOHN FRANKLIN CROWELL.

SMITH COLLEGE.

Life and Labour of the Pcople in London. Edited by Charles Booth. Vols. V. and VI.: Population classified by Trades. London, Macmillan & Co., 1895. — Small 8vo, 416 and 382 pp.

These two volumes, continuing the general sociological description of the working classes in London that was begun in the previous volumes, may be said to be based on the census, and at the same time to be illustrative and explanatory of the census figures. First, for each large trade or group of trades the census figures of 1891 are carefully analyzed. For instance, there were 32,666 painters and glaziers, including 161 females. Of these 22,982 were heads of families; the total number of persons represented by them was 105,956; and the average size of the family was 4.61. Of the heads of families, 65 per cent were born in London, and 35 per cent out of London. Of the total number, 7 per cent were employers, 84 per cent were employed, and 9 per cent were neither. The average age was greater in this than in other trades — a fact that is due to the influx from the provinces and the frequency with which men resort to this trade late in life. Nearly one-half of the families lived in "crowded" house conditions, that is, with two or more persons to a room.

These carefully arranged statistics give us a pretty fair notion of this trade. They are supplemented by the results of private inquiries in respect to the regularity of employment, the usual number of working hours, customary wages, membership in trade unions and benefit societies, the general prosperity or decline of the trade,